LABOR OUTLOOK IN THE CITY.

ACTUAL CONDITION OF WORKERS IN NEW YORK TO-DAY.

Progress of the Eight-Hour Movement and Some of the Changes Going On—Decline of Knights—Federation Growing.

The actual condition of workingmen who can get work in New York city to-day is generally better than ever. They are better fed and clothed and housed and have more holidays than ever before as a body. They are more thoroughly organized than ever, and the work of perfecting their organization is constantly going on. The tendency is to the decrease of the Knights of Labor, the local organizations of which were largely made up of men of different trades in one body. In place of the Knights has grown up a powerful body, the American Federation of Labor, organized each trade by itself. At the last report there were sixty-two national and international separate trades, comprising 586,000 members, belonging to the Federation, of which Samuel Gompers is President. In the last six months about 300 local organizations have been added to the Federation. The plan of keeping the affairs of each trade as much as possible in the hands of men belonging to that trade, which is the peculiar feature of the Federation, works well. New organizations are constantly springing up. Trades that were never before organized are coming in and getting the benefit.

The building trades are practically united, and work in sympathy with each other. It is practically impossible to build a house in New York city now without paying union wages to all the men employed on it in the city, working union hours. There is a tendency to shorter hours and increased wages for the men who belong to the unions.

The pressure of the trade unions for higher wages has undoubtedly contributed to drive a great deal of work out of the city and to the adoption of new methods of work. Book printing is now largely done outside of the city in places where the unions have not got control.

In the building trades, where the dictation of the trade unions is most strictly enforced, the amount of work that is done outside the city and brought here to be put together is simply enormous. Doors, sashes, window blinds, mouldings, and even trimmings are made in great factories in various parts of the country by non-union labor, and brought here to be put together in buildings. This is also true of immense quantities of iron and stone work which is got ready elsewhere and merely put together here.

The city contractors for large buildings find it very difficult to compete with out-of-town contractors who come here and underbid them by means of facilities to do the greater part of the work elsewhere. Among large buildings thus erected by out-of-town contractors may be mentioned the *Times* building, the new Manhattan Athletic Club building, the Imperial Hotel, and the Kelly building at Temple court, and many others. In most such buildings trouble comes when the union men of the city are brought in contact with the work of out-of-town non-union men. There has been a good deal of effort on the part of trade unions to prevent union men from aiding in the construction of buildings thus mainly constructed by non-union men, but it has not been found practical to prevent it entirely.

Twenty years ago carpenters in the city were working ten hours a day for $2 to $3 a day; now they get $3.50 a day for eight hours. The means of transit are such that there are many carpenters and other day laborers who live in the suburbs in their own homes, and come to the city to work every day. Many journeymen carpenters have been able to buy land cheaply, and to erect homes for themselves in spare hours and dull times. Most of this has been done in suburban New Jersey and Long Island, but latterly, since the elevated railroads have brought the annexed district into use, a good deal of this sort of thing has been going on in the city limits. Even the poor workman who is building his house in the suburbs finds it cheaper to buy his doors, sashes, and window frames ready made, as they come from New Hampshire, Connecticut, or elsewhere. The time has gone by when it is profitable to do this sort of work in the city. Machinery is used more in house-building.

There is no difference in the wages of a good carpenter and a bad carpenter. The union says the wages shall be $3.50 for all, and the boss pays it, although one man may be worth $5 and the other only $2. The good workman has, however, this advantage, he is the last one to be discharged, and the boss will give him work all the year round if he can, or put him in as a foreman, with half a dollar a day more. The eight-hour system works well with the carpenters, but the bosses say that it came upon them too suddenly, and caught some of them with big contracts, on which they had figured at nine hours a day. The framers, who are a distinct body from the carpenters, could not get $3.50 a day for eight hours, and compromised on 40 cents an hour. There are many carpenters and framers out of work at this season, as out-door work cannot go on in cold weather.

The stone workers and masons generally get the best pay in the building trades. They appear to have been successful in keeping down their numbers by limiting the number of apprentices. The marble finishers get $5 to $6 a day. The stone cutters and carvers get about $5 a day, and have some of the strongest unions. The best paid men in the building trades are the front brick layers, who get $5.50 a day, but they have to lose much time. There is no more making immense wages by laying front brick by the thousand, as they used to do when Lawson N. Fuller worked at the business. When they asked him to join the union he said: "What, do I want to put myself on a level with a man who can only lay 1,000 brick a day when I could lay 3,000?" But if he should want to work at it now he would be compelled to work at the union rates or not at all. Layers of rough brick get $4.50 a day.

There is a growing tendency to lessen strikes and keep the men more steadily at work by agreements between the bosses and the union men for a certain scale of wages to be renewed every year. The men fix the scale and the bosses agree to it and really do not care much what the scale is so long as all the bosses are compelled to pay alike. The stone cutters, masons, plasterers, and tin roofers have adopted the plan with gratifying success.

Speaking of the equity of this plan of fixing the wages for a given time, Mr. James W. Elgar, one of a family of builders who have in the last half century constructed many public and private buildings in this city, said this: "It is simply impossible to estimate the cost of erecting a building now. We must guess at the price of labor in most cases. If we guess too low we lose money. If we guess too high we are underbid by the out-of-town contractors, who evade the payment of union wages on a large part of their work. A year ago the carpenters gave us notice that the wages would be $3.50 for nine hours. Yet within a few months they took off an hour. One firm got caught with contracts for $165,000 worth of work, a large part of which was carpenter work. The bosses would not care if we were all compelled to pay the same wages; but the way the thing works now there is a constant tendency to give contracts to out-of-town employers, who will not pay for any work to be done in the city if they can help it. Long contracts for labor will prove a solution to much of the labor problem."

The terrible results of the long strike of the miners in Hocking valley where 4,000 men struck in 1884 and kept it up eleven months until 20,000 persons were involved in the contest, led to a system of fixed scales of wages that has since been adopted by both sides, thus practically ending strikes and lockouts among the miners. The President of the first joint convention of miners and bosses was Chris. Evans, now Secretary of the American Federation of Labor. In speaking of the value of this plan as a solution of the labor problem Mr. Evans said: "It has produced good feeling between men who were bitterly opposed. It has secured a business-like way of settling difficulties. The employers have even gone so far as to show us their books as a basis for fixing the scale. If there was anything needed to show the value of a fixed scale of wages, regulated at periodical times, as a solution of the labor question, the experience of the miners would prove it. Practically there have been about 75,000 men working amicably with their employers on a given scale of wages since 1886. There is a tendency to extend this plan to other trades. The iron and steel workers have done a good deal in this direction, and in this way are lessening strikes and securing more steady employment. I call it the conciliatory plan. It is even better than arbitration, because it prevents the necessity for arbitration. The miners work only about two-thirds of the time and average about $2 a day, working at piece work, and their trade is erroneously called unskilled. But with an overcrowded supply of laborers they can do so much with organization that the example is sure to be followed extensively by other trades."

Plumbers in New York get $3 to $4 a day, and have pretty steady work the year round. They have a strong union, and limit the number of apprentices. The demands of the Board of Health for sanitary plumbing make plenty of business, and the poorest people get the benefit of it. If the plumbing in any house is bad, all that is necessary, if the landlord will not attend to it, is to notify the Board of Health, and the landlord will be compelled to fix it. The homes of the poor in New York were never so well cared for as now in this respect.

Painters get nominally $3.50 a day in New York, but, at this season of the year, when work grows dull they get less and go to work for the jobbers who do not belong to the unions. First-class painters get work the year round, but the bulk of painters lose a deal of time.

Cabinetmakers get from $15 to $21 a week, and there are always plenty to be had. The work is quite distinct from carpentering. The use of cabinet work in buildings is increasing, especially for barrooms and stores. There is some piece work, but the bulk of it is for weekly wages from $10 upward.

Tin roofers get $3.50 a day for eight hours. The amount of work varies. Just now, when many buildings are being finished and covered for the winter, there are not tin roofers enough to do the work. In a short time there will be no work for tin roofers to do. The tin roofers probably lose more time than any other branch of the building business.

Since the hod carriers got organized they get from $2.50 to $2.75 a day. Most people look upon this as unskilled labor, but it is not so. There is a good deal of knack in handling bricks and mortar, and a greenhorn can by no means do it off-hand. The cellar diggers, or common day laborers, get from $1.50 a day up. They have no organization and are mostly Italians. Some of the Italians have, however, got into the trades organizations and are working amicably with the Irish and other nationalities.

It is estimated that about 18 or 20 per cent. of the journeymen who work in New York city as masons, plasterers, stone cutters, and some other departments have no homes here, and only stay here during the busy season of the year, about nine months. Then they go back to Canada or Great Britain for the other three months and rest with their families. They find it cheaper to do this than to live here the other three months out of work. They belong to the trades unions, and they are unanimously in favor of the strictest limitation of the number of apprentices. It seems pretty rough that the voice of such men should prevent an American citizen from teaching his own son his own trade, but such a thing might happen. The high wages paid in the building trades have affected rents so that a workingman now pays about $12 a month for apartments that were formerly rented at $8 a month. There is some compensation, however, in the fact that sanitary regulations are more prevalent. But there is a constant tendency to compel the workingman to travel further and further to his work. Possibly this fact may in time, by the pressure of the almost irresistible power of the labor unions, compel the Legislature to permit an extension of rapid transit, and release the municipality from the grip of the corporations that have got hold of the arteries of travel and won't let go or oblige the public. It costs now from 30 to 40 per cent. more to build a house than it did twenty years ago. But there are more fireproof houses. There are no more eight-inch walls, or hollow iron columns, or wooden Mansard roofs. The walls must be thick, the iron columns must be filled, and the roofs made fireproof. But it costs more, and the people who occupy the houses must pay some of the increased cost. The landlord may be compelled to take less rent, but he is a notorious kicker for revenue, and the workingman must pay his share or travel.

Good watchmakers get from $18 to $25 a week in the city, and there are plenty of them to be had at that. They have never had a trade union, and their wages are kept down. They have the advantage of working indoors and pretty constant employment. But they must be skilled workmen. Many men in trades requiring far less skill are getting better pay, chiefly as the result of organization.

Shoemakers get better wages in New York city than elsewhere. The highest prices are paid in the custom trade. The cutters are about the only ones who get weekly wages. They earn from $15 to $30 a week. Most of the remainder work at piece work, and earn from $10 to $25 a week, according to the hours they are willing to work. Many are satisfied with $10, when, if they were willing to work, they could get more than double. They prefer to work short hours, and take frequent holidays. Much of the work is done by teams of eight or ten men to a team, who distribute the various parts among themselves, each man doing the part that he is best fitted to do. In this way they get along a good deal faster than they could working singly. The profits of the division of labor are so great that very few shoemakers ever make one pair without assistance. The most of what is called fitting is a separate business. It consists of sewing on the gaiter tops. Generally a workman takes the work of one store and hires his own girls to help him. The work of the city shoemaker is much better and better paid than that of the great shoe factories of the East, although immense quantities of the latter are sold in the ready-made stores, and readily bought by consumers regardless of the fact that they may not be the product of union labor. It is characteristic of the city shoemakers, as of printers and other workers by the piece, that they prefer to take their leisure as they go along rather than to amass savings to enable them to take leisure later in life.

A journeyman printer said on this subject: "It is a characteristic of all trades in New York city where men work by the piece to conform their working hours to the demands of recreation. Printers, tailors, hatters, and shoemakers are proverbial for it. They do not take long vacations in the summer, but they keep all the holidays, and do not object to knocking off a day to go to Coney Island or the races or the base ball matches. The men who do this are not idlers or loafers, but they are steady men, who have industrious habits and always a little money ahead. The practice is so universal, especially among printers, that a considerable number of men earn a regular living as substitutes, or extra men, in various trades. It is especially in the organized trades that this is done. Holidays are taken on the slightest provocation. Although some turn up with big heads on 'blue Monday,' there are many who work better after short periods of rest."

Jack Slater of J. & J. Slater said: "The men who make ladies' riding boots get the highest shoemakers' wages. They can earn $25 a week. We have men earning $23 a week the year round, while other men on the same work refuse to earn more than $10 a week. It is all piecework, and they work or play as they see fit, and most of them seem to prefer play to steady work."

Hatters in the city can earn about $5 a day with steady work. It is mostly done by the piece, and many prefer to work short weeks and enjoy life as it goes rather than exhaust themselves with too arduous labor. They have a trade organization that regulates wages.

In the clothing trade there is a wide range of prices paid for work, ranging from $8 to $30 per week. The lowest wages are paid for cheap ready-made goods, which are all farmed out to piece workers, including the labor of men, women, and children. The trade unions control only the better class of work. Custom cutters command the very highest wages, ranging from $25 to $60 per week, and the makers of the fashionable garments of men's clothing can approximate those figures. There are many branches of the clothing trade, and the competition among the workers is always great. Organization has done a good deal to keep up wages. In thirteen cities the Journeymen Tailors' National Union have restricted the hours of labor to nine per day. The trades now working eight hours a day are the carpenters, house framers, German-American printers, stone masons, stair builders, plasterers, lathers, fresco painters, and wood carvers.

The best paid trade is that of the bank note engravers, who earn all the way from $20 to $200 a week. They have never had a trade union. Their protection consists in the fact that their trade requires a great deal of artistic ability and a good many years of practice. When they become expert they have no difficulty in getting employment, because there is always a sharp competition among employers to secure the best workmen. During the war and for years after there were not enough of them to be had in the world, and many engravers were brought in from other businesses to aid in some parts of the work. The bank note printers, known as plate printers, also had things all their own way for a number of years. They had a flourishing union and got all the prices they asked, and then there were not half enough to do the work. They earned from $20 to $70 a week. Since the new paper currency was nearly completed and the use of many Government stamps has stopped, the plate printers have lost work and many have gone out of the business.

The success of organized labor has led to the formation of new labor unions among men belonging to what is regarded as unskilled labor. Among the recent additions to the Federation are clerks, street pavers, hackmen, electric-car employees, lathers, waiters, undertakers, mineral-water workers, and stove mounters.

Ordinary machinists in New York get $3 to $4 a day, and it is astonishing how much brains can be bought at that price. It takes a good deal of head work to be a good machinist, but the rush to learn it, the multiplicity of apprentices, the introduction of machinery, and the slowness to perfect organization have kept the wages down. There is, however, some compensation in the fact that machinists have pretty steady work and most of it indoors.

What trades are crowded in the city? The answer is that there are few if any trades in which there are not men looking for work during some months of the year. Also there is hardly any trade that has not its busy season. There is a large class of workers that have two occupations—one for winter and the other for summer. The icemen, for instance, have to look up other jobs in the winter. The supply of intelligent mechanics is so great that there is no difficulty in filling the ranks for any new employment that may arise. While on the one hand men are constantly thrown out of work by new labor-saving devices, there are, on the other hand, many new places for those who have the faculty of adaptability and can take hold of a new employment readily. The many applications of electricity to modern life, for instance, has given employment to many thousands of workmen in New York city, earning the very best wages paid to mechanics. New processes of illustrating books and periodicals have also given employment to many workmen. The tile and mosaic layers are increasing in numbers. Organizations of clerks are keeping up a steady pressure for shorter hours of employment. The clerks and salesmen are forming a national association. In New York city the cigarmakers have kept up a vigorous campaign for shorter hours and higher pay, and have been recently securing considerable advantages. They have furnished some of the ablest leaders in the labor movement, distinguished not only for zeal and industry, but for prudence and probity. They discourage overwork, and they have a reserve fund that shows a balance in the treasury of over $16 for each member. Even now the preparations are in progress for the great International Labor Congress to take place in Chicago in 1893.

One marked effect of the crystallizing of men by trades has been a better feeling between employers and employed. There is less of the bitter and senseless denunciation of employers than there was under the rule of the Knights. The methods of organized labor are assuming a more business-like shape. The men realize that there are limits to the power of trade unions, and they seem disposed, while securing due recognition, to keep within those limits.

It would seem natural that persons intrusted with large amounts of valuable property should receive high wages. But it is a fact, and a fact greatly to the credit of workingmen, that low wages are paid to those who handle immense wealth. Jewellers, diamond setters, and spectacle makers who work in the precious stones and metals earn from $15 to $40 a week, and the greater number of them do not average $25 a week. In some jeweller shops the workmen handle gold and silver without check, and yet dishonesty is rare. In commercial circles there are thousands of clerks and messenger boys who handle daily immense sums of money and securities, and yet receive pay far below the average wages of good mechanics.

Some people think the labor leader is not worth his salt, and others think he is a parasite, a disturber of the peace, and a stirrer up of revolt. There are now employed by the various unions in this city about 100 men who attend to the business of the unions and get paid for their services. The rule is that they get paid for their time at the rate they would earn if at work at their trades. The theory of their employment is that they are as much necessary as a lawyer or any other agent who does for a man what he has neither the time nor the ability to do for himself. Every step in the labor movement has been fought with vigor against a good deal of stubborn opposition and ignorance on the part of the workingmen. It is true that there are demagogues, blatherskites, and bad advisers among them; but the leaders as a body are fair representatives of the workmen, and some of them are pecuniary losers rather than gainers by their occupation. It is certain that the labor movement could not go on without them.

THE HOUSEKEEPER'S NEW TERROR.

Some of the Tricks and Traps of the Storage Warehouse Man.

A new terror to housekeepers in New York has arisen. It is the storage warehouse. Of late years, along with the increase of apartment houses, there has been a demand for the storage of household furniture. Many families prefer to live nine months in the city and three in the country. They do not care to pay rent for two places at once. They break up housekeeping in the city in the spring, store their furniture, save the rent of their flat, and come back and take another flat in the fall. This makes a good deal of tribulation.

The storage warehouse man is all smiles when people are breaking up in the spring. His story runs something like this: "You need not have any trouble. We will send men to do all your packing. We make no extra charge for this, as we are responsible for breakage and prefer to see that things are properly packed. We will take your carpets and get them cleaned, so that you will have them ready to put down in the fall. We will put your things in a separate room. We do not know exactly how many loads there will be, but we will charge you so much per load. You do not know where you are going in the fall, so we cannot tell how much exactly it will be per load, but it will be a reasonable charge. You need not pay a cent until the fall, when you can pay the whole bill at once."

The storage warehouse man says all this so blandly and is apparently so obliging and the prospect is so promisingly free from all trouble that the housekeeper is delighted and goes off to the country or to Europe in a happy frame of mind. But in the fall the storage warehouse man is decidedly a different being. The housekeeper wants the carpets taken out first and separately, so that they can be made over to fit the new dwelling. The storehouse man is very busy. He has so many orders on hand that there is delay. The carpets are packed so that all the furniture must be overhauled to get at them. This makes labor charges. Some of the carpet is missing. This makes more delay. The storehouse man says it is the fault of the carpet cleaner, and promises to investigate. This takes time, and the housekeeper, anxious to get settled, is impatient. The storehouse man suggests that, as the housekeeper knows the pattern of the carpet, he had better try and hunt it up at the carpet cleaner's. The carpet cleaner is positive that he returned it, and between the two the housekeeper is in despair. The storehouse man placidly promises to hunt it up when he gets time, and he cannot tell when that time will be, he is so busy. The housekeeper decides to take out the balance of his furniture. He finds that instead of being in a separate room it has been in an open bin; that dust and moths have taken possession of it. He must pay the bill of the storehouse man before he can get anything delivered. He protests that he ought not to be asked to pay for his goods which are not delivered. The storehouse man is inexorable. He says: "If everything is not right we will make it right." The housekeeper moves into his new house without any carpets. He becomes furious and makes repeated visits to the storehouse. He gets no satisfaction. He is told that a search for his carpets is in progress and he must wait. He waits. He protests again, and he is told that if he can help himself in any way he had better go ahead. Then he makes inquiries, and finds that the storehouse man is well known to the courts and accustomed to law suits, and that the storage company with which he has done business has no existence; that there is no responsible party connected with the warehouse; that if he sues one it will be shown that somebody else is the proprietor, and that the chances are if he sues that he will only add to his loss.

The cost of moving the contents of an ordinary six-room flat, storing for four months, and moving to a new house, is about $75. Extras are put on for silverware and costly bric-à-brac put in the safe. Owing to the rush of business in the fall, the storehouse man gets incompetent help. They take folding beds apart, and do not know how to put them together again. They mark and scratch the furniture going up stairs, and ruin the landlord's halls. They pack the goods loosely, so as to make extra loads. They dislocate the gas fixtures. They pack the goods so as to take about twice as many barrels as are necessary. They pile on extra charges for labor. They get possession of the housekeeper's list of goods and keep it, so that if the housekeeper sues he has no list or receipt to show. They swear that the moths were in the furniture when it went into the warehouse; that the things were scratched and broken when they got them, and at the end of it all the housekeeper is convinced of the truth of the old adage, that "Three moves are equal to a fire."

Many housekeepers have had this sad experience. One family moved to Westchester county, and the men in charge of the vans that took the goods there refused to deliver them unless the housekeeper paid a bill which was about $35 in excess of the price which the housekeeper expected to pay. Another found valuable carpets and clothing eaten up by moths, and could get no redress. Another lost rare bric-à-brac, and could get no satisfaction.

Of course all the storehouse men are not alike. But it is essential for housekeepers before risking the loss of their goods to look out and deal with responsible persons, to have an explicit agreement in writing as to what the charges will be, to have goods securely packed and protected from moths and scratches, to have accurate lists of everything so that the descriptions are such that it may appear if anything is missed, to take receipts in plain terms and keep them, so that in case of litigation there may be something to show as to what the storehouse man agreed to do. Without these precautions the housekeeper is apt to come to great grief.

Six Minutes' Stop for a Wedding.

From the Pittsburgh Dispatch.

The twenty-minutes-divorce-railway stop of trains in Indiana was beaten in Washington county yesterday. Mr. Will E. Robinson of Beallsville and Miss Lou Jeffrey of East Bethlehem boarded the train at West Brownsville and contrived to get married on the fly while coming to this city.

The party did not wish to be married at the home of the groom, and Mr. Robinson could not get a leave of absence so as to get a marriage license in this city and how to get married away from home, take a trip, and be back for duty on Monday morning was the question to be solved, and Mr. D. M. Watt, superintendent of the Monongahela division of the Pennsylvania Railroad, and Col. Chill Hazzard helped the interested couple out of an interesting dilemma. Mr. Watt had the train stopped at Monongahela City. Editor Hazzard had secured the attendance of the Rev. J. T. Riley of the M. E. church on the depot platform. Mr. Robinson and Miss Jeffrey stepped from the train to the platform and the Rev. Mr. Riley pronounced the ceremony without wasting any time.

The train stopped at 5:15 o'clock P. M., and was again on its way at 5:21, the ceremony occupying just three minutes. An immense crowd had assembled at the station and a band was playing the wedding march as the bride and groom stepped upon the platform. As the happy pair stepped back aboard the train the crowd showered rice upon them until they were literally covered.

TIMING BY ELECTRICITY.

AN APPARATUS USED SUCCESSFULLY AT FIELD GAMES IN CANADA.

In Sprint Races It Will Register a Runner's Time Within the Hundredth Part of a Second—A Comparison of Time Between a Watch and this Apparatus.

At the Athletic games of the Amateur Athletic Association of Canada, on Sept. 27, at Montreal, for the amateur championships of the Dominion, an apparatus was used for timing the races by electricity. The results were highly satisfactory, and it is safe to predict that in the near future, at all important games electricity will take the place of timing by hand. Timing by hand, no matter how expert those holding the watches are, is apt to be unreliable, and in a 100-yard race, for instance, a fifth of a second makes the difference between a runner's holding a record for 10 seconds or the best on record of 9⅘ seconds. If the latter time is given him and he is an amateur, he equals the time accomplished by no other one of his class, and he will at once occupy a position most prominent in athletic circles. Few people realize that if those holding the watches are a little slow at starting the split second hand, it will make the race a little faster than if the timers were very expert and could start the second hand simultaneously with the flash of the pistol. In other words, inexperienced

APPARATUS AT THE START.

A—Electric wires of switch.
B—Diaphragm.
C—Ordinary revolver.

timers invariably make a race fast, and expert ones seemingly make it slow when really they are correct to quite a degree.

As an instance of the inaccuracy of hand timing, we will take as a fair sample the 100-yard race held on Oct. 1 at Detroit. The timers were as good as could be found in amateur athletic circles in the West, although they probably did not compare with the three or four of the leading timers in this city. The race in question had among the entries, John Owen, Jr., of the Detroit Athletic Club, and Fred Westing, Luther H. Cary, and Mortimer Remington of the Manhattan Athletic Club. These four men are very fast, the first three holding records of 10 seconds for the distance. Owen won the recent 100-yard championship of Canada, and took part in the Detroit race fresh from this victory. Spectators expected to see a fast performance, and the timers were probably equally eager that he should run fast. These officials made the time 10 seconds, yet in the final heat he was beaten by about four feet in 10⅘ seconds. As each fifth of a second in a 100-yard race covered at a 10⅕-second gait is equal to about two yards, and as Owen was four feet behind 10⅘ seconds in the final heat, it can readily be seen that, judging by the times of his trial and final heats, he ran more than three yards slower in the latter than in the former. The conclusion of many who saw the contest is, that the timing was inaccurate, but those holding the watches have served on a number of occasions, and few would doubt their ability to time correctly.

To time a sprint race needs practice, for a fifth of a second is so important. A variation of a fifth of a second in a one-mile race is not worth noticing for a runner who has a record

APPARATUS AT THE FINISH.

of 4 minutes 20⅘ seconds, for the distance would be considered fully equal to one having a record of one-fifth of a second less. There have been cases of timers in New York city not varying a fifth of a second in a dozen or more heats of a 100-yard race. In other words, the watches of the three officials would, as each heat was run, register the same. Clubs do not, however, always make the same selection for timers for their games, and cases are plentiful where only one man has had experience, the other two being comparative novices at the art. When this is so, variations in the times of the sprint races are expected, and although it has been found that timers improve greatly with practice, the facts are that the majority of timers in amateur games have had very little practice on account of the single individuals being asked so infrequently to serve. Games committees do not always select officials from a point of ability, and this unfortunate habit is responsible for so many new men continually trying their luck at timing races. Before showing how much difference there was between the electrical and hand timing a description of the electrical apparatus will be very appropriate.

At the finish of all the races on the track is a shed in which is a machine worked by machinery similar to ordinary clock work. The features of this machine are a cylinder six or seven inches in diameter and a foot long, covered by a sheet of white paper. A pen is supported on an arm, and as the cylinder revolves the pen makes a straight mark, except at each second, when it moves about one-sixteenth of an inch sideways, but then comes back to its straight course. The marks at each second are caused by a clock, which is carefully regulated. This clock may be put anywhere. It may be in the shed alongside of the electrical machine. In Canada it was in the club house, several hundred feet distant from the shed. Wires connecting from this clock regulate the seconds on the electrical machine. The electrical machine will run and continue to mark seconds whether any race is in progress or not.

The mechanism connected with the races is very simple. Wires run from the electrical machine in the shed around the track, and have switches at the various starts. On the Canadian track there is a switch at the 100-yard, 220-yard, 440-yard, 880-yard, and one-mile start. The track is three laps to the mile,

TOP VIEW OF FINISHING POST AND APPARATUS FOR BREAKING ELECTRICAL CIRCUIT.

A—Finishing thread.
B—Top of finishing post.
C—Spring for breaking circuit.
D—Metal box of circuit breaker.

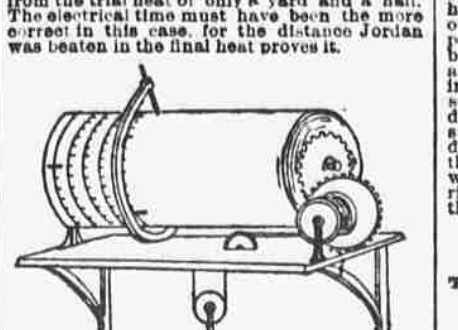
and this length necessitates the different starts for the mentioned races. For five miles, however, the same start was used as for the one mile. When the starter was ready to despatch the contestants he attached his pistol to a small device fitting closely to the barrel. This metal piece contains a diaphragm, and from this wires run to the main circuit. The switches are six or eight feet in length, so as to allow the starter a little space to move around according to his judgment. The concussion caused by the firing of the pistol acts on the diaphragm, which in turn simultaneously affects the pen, and a mark is made on the cylinder different from the regular second marks which are continually being used. While the race is in progress the cylinder continues to revolve and the pen keeps on marking the seconds but when the circuit is broken by the runners breaking the tape at the finish the pen makes another mark on the cylinder similar to the one made at the start. Time is then computed on the cylinder by a scale marked in spaces representing hundredths of a second.

The mechanism for breaking the circuit at the finish may be open to a little criticism and, in fact, it is the only part of the whole device which could be improved on. A small circuit breaking apparatus is attached to one of the finish posts and wires run from it to the electrical apparatus in the shed. The thread stretched across the track for the runners to breast will by very little tension move a spring in the circuit breaker, but the part that has been at all questioned is the regulating of the tension to move this spring. In theory the circuit is supposed to be broken as soon as the runner touches the thread, but the thread is so long it necessarily having to stretch across the track, a distance in the neighborhood of twenty feet, that it will stand anywhere from three to nine inches deflection before affecting the spring in the circuit breaker. The officials having charge of the electrical apparatus at the Canadian games drew the thread at each race as tightly as possible without its own tension breaking the circuit, but even then the thread could be deflected some inches without showing on the papered cylinder. These few inches which the runner travels before affecting the apparatus may be equal to one or two hundredths of a second in a 100-yard race. To sum this part up in a few words, it may be said that the electrical timer is not affected as soon as the winner's breast touches the tape, and only till three or six inches more have been travelled, according to the tension on the thread, will the circuit be broken.

As an example of how much difference there was in the two systems of timing at the Canadian games, the greatest and the least variations can easily be seen by the following table compiled from the reports of the officials for both the electrical and hand timing:

Event.	Electricity. min. secs.	Official. min. secs.
100 yards, first heat	10.25	10 1-5
100 yards, second heat	10.54	10 1-5
100 yards, final heat	10.32	10 1-5
220 yards, first heat	23.84	23
220 yards, second heat	23.80	24
220 yards, final heat	22.50	22 2-5
440 yards	50.62	50 3-5
880 yards	2.23	1 59¾
1 mile	4 29.90	4 29 4-5
2 miles	9 34.10	9 34 3-5
3 mile walk	22 13.02	22 12 1-5
120 yards hurdle, first heat	16.65	16 1-5
120 yards hurdle, second heat	16.20	16 1-5
120 yards hurdle, final heat	16.15	16
120 yards hurdle, run off	16.07	16

An analysis of some of the worst variations shows that, for instance, in the second heat of the 100-yard run electricity made the time 10.54 seconds, which, in common fractions, means a shade over 10½ seconds. The hand timing made the result 10⅕ seconds. The difference in distance between these two times is over three yards. Luther Cary won the heat easily, and when 10⅕ seconds was announced there were many surprised faces. The probabilities are that the electrical timing was more correct than the hand system. A glance at the two times of the run off of the dead heat in the 120-yard hurdle race shows that the electrical time is only 7-100 of a second slower than the official time. This, in distance, is equal to about a foot and a half. In the second heat of the 220-yard race and the two-mile race the electrical time was slower than the official, but what caused it is not known. In the 440-yard run the difference in the two times is only 2-100 of a second, which is so small as not to attract attention. Electricity made the time of the first heat in the hurdle race 16 65-100 seconds, which in common fractions is over 16 3-5 seconds. The official time of this heat was 16 1-5 seconds, which represents, in distance, a difference of three yards from the electrical time. The probabilities are that electricity was much more correct in this heat than the official, for A. F. Copland was the winner, about a foot ahead of A. A. Jordan. Copland simply kept ahead of the second man, and did not have to travel fast. In the final heat Copland, in his effort to beat H. L. Williams, exerted himself and he beat Jordan by over three yards, yet the official time showed a difference in distance from the trial heat of only a yard and a half. The electrical time must have been the more correct in this case, for the distance Jordan was beaten in the final heat proves it.



FRONT VIEW OF CYLINDER AND ITS MECHANISM.

Prof. McLeod of McGill University of Montreal, who constructed and handled the electrical timing apparatus at the Canadian games, says that the main reason of his machine registering in nearly each case slower time than that obtained by hand is that the flash of the pistol is felt almost simultaneously by the machine which registers the time, while in the case of timing by hand the human eye must first see the flash and then the finger must press the stop on the watch. He does not think that any appreciable time is lost at the finish by the thread standing deflection before effecting the circuit-breaking apparatus, although he does not deny but that there is some loss. "What is a delay of one or two one-hundredths of a second," he added, "which a six-inch deflection of the thread may cause, compared with the variance of two or three yards as shown by watches held by hand. Two yards is equal on the electrical machine in a 100-yard race to twenty one-hundredths of a second."

Those who inquired into or examined Prof. McLeod's machine are of the opinion that it is correct for all practicable purposes, and that it is a valuable adjunct for grounds. Interest has increased so much in athletic games during the last several years, and the demand for better arrangements for procuring reliable records has assumed such prominence that even though any move tending to injure such an old custom of timing by hand may be frowned upon by some, it is generally the opinion that electricity has come to stay. With a good machine handled by one versed on the subject there can be no error.

TWO CATS TO A HOUSE.

One of the Unwritten Laws of the Sanitary Bureau of the Health Department.

"Major Bullard, sir," a polite old gentleman said to the Chief Inspector of the Sanitary Squad at the Health Department office the other day, "I have been referred to you as one who may perhaps proffer a suggestion as to some effective way of removing superfluous and unnecessary cats."

The Major smiled and leaned backed in his chair with a reflective glance at the ceiling.

"I think you'll have to inquire of the Bergh people," he replied, in a very gentle voice. "They won't object to any method that does not subject the doomed cat to pain. We have no recipe here, you know."

"But the trouble is, Major," the old gentleman remarked, "they're not my cats!"

"Oh?"

"No!"

"Well?"

"Why! it lies here. I own several tenement houses——"

"Ah!" interrupted Major Bullard, beginning to comprehend.

"Yes," the old gentleman continued, with growing animation, "and I am overburdened with the complaints of tenants who do not keep cats, do not like cats, and won't live, if they can help it, with cats. They fill the house—not the tenants—oh, not that!—I mean the cats—that is, my houses are full of tenants, and some of them keep an inordinate number of cats. That creates a nuisance. I protest without avail. The keepers of cats say they are afraid of rats."

"And you told them," Major Bullard suggested pleasantly, "that you would complain to the Board of Health?"

"Exactly, sir. What can I do?"

"I don't know," the Major replied, slowly and gently. "It's a difficult matter and not new to us. We understand the sanitary nuisance of the superfluous cat, but we cannot authorize harsh measures. In the first place, the cat is property; so you cannot go into your own building and violently make way with a tenant's cat. In the second place, when it comes to disposing of the cats, provided an amicable arrangement is made of which, of course, the victims are ignorant, you've got to be careful not to run up against the Bergh society. We have a kind of a rule that there may be two cats to a building," and the Major smiled.

"That's good! that's good!" the old gentleman exclaimed. "I'm sure I entertain no hostility to the cat in the abstract, or considered as a species, and I wouldn't think of proposing the total and absolute extermination of the whole tribe on the island, but this increase must be checked, sir, or my tenants will move away, to—Hoboken or—somewhere."

"But," the Major continued dreamily, "we can't organize a crusade to go about discouraging the increase of cats. It's a very troublesome matter. A lot of nice old ladies have cats to the extent of a perfect colony. They live in private houses, and what are you going to do about it? Then there was Garrison of the Grand Union Hotel. His laundresses and kitchen girls and other female employees had each her cat or two, and, well! the guests compelled him to hump himself. He fired every cat out of the building and put gratings in the windows so they couldn't get back. Then such a shriek went up from the girls! They must have their cats back, or, dear me, they'd be eaten up by rats. They actually wouldn't stay in the house, and Garrison, I believe, had to admit a limited number under strict regulations as to caring for them. By the way, though," and here the Major's smile was transcendently beautiful, "I read in THE SUN a while ago about a society formed by some very nice ladies for the establishment of a hospital for homeless cats. Why not compromise with your felinophile tenants, if I may use the word? Persuade them to send their extra cats to the hospital! The owners, you know, could visit them on regular days, say Wednesday afternoons, and so not lose them altogether. But, if that is not practicable, you'll have to consult the Bergh people, and that is what I advise you to do."

The polite landlord expressed his thanks and started to find the office of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.

Ruined by Chess.

From the Philadelphia Press.

DETROIT, Oct. 5.—In the committal of Fred Elder of Detroit for vagrancy is written the close of the life of one of the brightest newspaper men Michigan ever saw. Fifteen years ago Elder, who had graduated at Amherst College with high honors and obtained his diploma from the law school, came to Michigan as a newspaper man. His mind was of the brightest, keenest kind, and he could call to mind the very page and paragraph of any quotation from Blackstone or Kent and was a perfect encyclopædia on Shakespeare. He learned to play chess and became enraptured with the game. His love for chess overcame his care for food and his profession, and he lost his position, step by step he drifted down, sacrificing anything for the game.

INSURANCE AMONG THE MARRIED.

There are Twenty Men to One Woman with Policies on their Lives.

Although much has been written to show that married people are healthier than single people, it is by no means demonstrated that they are healthier because they are married. Statistical tables quoted to show that married people live longer than single people do not prove that the long life is consequent upon marriage. Such figures may as well be taken to show that people get married because they are healthy, rather than that they are healthy and long lived as the result of marriage. Probably as fair a test as any is the attitude of the life insurance companies on the subject. It is not true that the life insurance companies charge any less for married people than for single people. Neither is it true that life insurance companies are more ready to insure married people than single people. The universal rule is to consider mainly the physical condition and age of the person to be insured, and the probability of inherited disease or shorter life. All these matters are quite independent of matrimony, and it often happens that a married man is rejected, while a single man of the same age is accepted.

As a matter of fact there are about twenty men insured to one woman. Some companies will not insure women at all. The Equitable charges women $5 on a thousand more than men of the same age. It appears that the attempt to insure a woman's life is regarded with suspicion. It is said by experts that women are more secretive as to their physical ailments. They do not like to expose their own weaknesses or their family history. The result is that the companies cannot get as full statements of facts from women as from men. Some time ago a woman was insured by one of the large companies and she died within a few months of cancer. If a man wants to insure his wife's life it is looked upon as at least requiring investigation. One reason why women's lives are not often insured is probably that there are some perils in maternity.

The rule generally is that any person can insure the life of another upon whom he or she is dependent for support, or in the continuance of whose life he has an adequate pecuniary interest, and a wife is always held to have an insurable interest in the life of her husband. But it seldom happens that the husband has an insurable interest in the life of the wife. For a husband, under other circumstances, to insure the life of his wife might lead to the supposition that he expected to profit by her death. Yet a widow might with propriety insure her own life for the benefit of her children. That there are twenty men who insure their lives to one woman is a fact that may well be considered by some of the woman's rights reformers, who say such hard things of the sterner sex.

MANUFACTURERS TO MIGRATE.

The New Tariff Draws European Mill Owners to the United States.

A lot of English, Scotch, Irish, and French men are running about this country now looking for favorable sites on which to erect mills and factories where linens, hosiery, and woollen dress goods can be made. They are hunting, too, for mills that have been shut down, or they are willing to purchase an interest in American mills where these goods are manufactured. They are the agents of the owners of mills in Europe, which have for years been supplying the American market with all the fine linen consumed here and with stacks and stacks of woollen dress goods and hosiery that have been sold by the American storekeepers. The new tariff is responsible for the agents' raid. The new rates of duty on the product of the European looms threaten to ruin their trade with America, and just as a matter of self-defence they are going to move over here and manufacture their goods. They won't shut up their European mills, but none of the product of those mills will be put on our counters.

Most of the agents who are trotting about the country have been here ever since it became pretty certain that the McKinley bill was going to become a law. Some of them have succeeded in finding what they want, and it is only a matter of a little time, perhaps a year, when mills will actually be opened.

The first of these new founders, as far as can be learned, is J. Carmichael Allen, who has been in the linen manufacturing business in Ireland nearly all his life. He came over here himself at the beginning of the agitation. He decided that it would pay to be American, and so he organized a stock company of Americans. With part American capital he is going to build a linen mill in Minneapolis. The money is all subscribed, and a site in the northeastern part of the city has been purchased. The work of building will be begun at once. To start with there will be fifty looms, and flax fibre grown in northern Minnesota will be used. The machinery that will be put into the mill will be of American manufacture, and the mill hands will all be American and will get American wages.

The second enterprise to find a place is a dyeing concern to be run by Louis Hermsdorf, the famous Saxon "fast black" man. In his establishment in Chemnitz, Saxony, he employs 1,500 hands, and he makes black dye for all kinds of hosiery, gloves, and tricot cloth. He is going to settle in Philadelphia. His agent has done everything except arrange the details of the purchase and construction of factories. He said a few days ago that everything was settled, and that Hermsdorf would have a place here in a few months.

"How many foreigners are going to move over here with their establishments?" was asked of a man who knows all about the linen industry in America, and who has been consulted by many European manufacturers or their agents.

"That is hard to say," he replied, "but there is a considerable number of them looking around already, and there will be many more. I know of a good many, but I am not at liberty to mention their names. I have received all sorts of letters from linen manufacturers asking what the prospect is for making money, besides putting numerous other questions, and I know that any number are considering the question in addition to those who have already sent their agents here. It's all poppycock to say that they cannot make linen here as good as they can make there, or that the fibre of the flax grown in this country cannot be utilized to make linen. These same men who are going to settle here and make their goods are the men who for years have been saying that American flax was worthless, and that it was useless to attempt to grow flax for seed and for fibre at the same time. The United States is one of the greatest flax-producing countries in the world. Last year more than a million acres of land was devoted to the industry. It was for seed alone, though most of the fibre was burned. Why? Just because the farmers didn't know that it was worth anything, for one reason, and for another, that there were not enough linen manufactories in the country to use it up. I don't say that our American flax, as it is at present cultivated, is good to make the finest linen, but it can be made so with a little more care and study. As soon as we get onto the curves of this business we can beat the world, and these Europeans who are coming over here know that or they wouldn't come. Flax is not the only thing, either. It requires the most skilful workmen to handle the fine fibres that go into the best linen. One has almost to be born to it to handle it without breaking it. The men who come here to start their mills and factories will make in them, to begin with, only the coarser grade of goods, half bleached goods, such as cheap table covers, cheap napkins, crash, and the like, but finally they will make the finer grades."

"Will they buy American machinery to put in their mills?" asked the reporter.

"I don't think so," was the reply. "Some of them may, but I think that for a few years England will send over to us machinery where she used to send linen and the like."

"Will they get around the difficulty of securing skilled labor by importing men and women from Europe who have been brought up in the business?"

"No, they will not," the man replied. "They will depend on the superior intelligence of American labor. Delicate as the work is it will not take the average American man or woman long to adapt himself or herself to it and to become as skilful as the Europeans who have been born in the business."

There is no question about the success of the woollen dress goods men and hosiery men who settle here. They will come into competition with the American manufacturers. Woollen men say that there is room for them all, but that they will have to hustle to keep along. They will not make any better goods than are already being made here because as good woollen cloth is made here now as is made anywhere in the world. The men in the importing business don't say this because, with the increase of the product of mills here, their business slides away from them.

These trades are not the only European ones that are going to settle here on account of the tariff. There is talk of the manufacturers of some food products, notably of macaroni, coming, and of other businesses, but they have not so far advanced as have the linen and woollen and hosiery and dye men.

"This emigration isn't a bad thing for America," said a Worth street merchant. "American bricklayers and carpenters and laborers will be employed to build the factories with American material. American machinery, in part at any rate, with American operatives to run it and American raw material. It will stimulate business generally."

THE ALLIANCE DOWN SOUTH.

STRONG, BUT NO LONGER THREATENING THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY.

United for Other Ends Than the Disruption of the Solid South.

NEW ORLEANS, Oct. 11.—The Farmers' Alliance has fared badly in politics in Louisiana this fall, notwithstanding its great strength and influence. A couple of months ago it looked as though it would secure at least half the Louisiana delegates in Congress, that it would dictate the nominations, placing in the field its own candidates, or compelling the nominees of the Democratic party to accept the Sub-Treasury bill. All the Congressional nominations have now been made, and Louisiana will not return a single Congressman in favor of the Farmers' pet measure.

In August the Farmers' Alliance met in convention in Baton Rouge to decide upon the part it would take in politics. The convention showed the organization to be very strong, particularly in the Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth districts of the State, where it probably has enrolled a majority of the white voters. At the same time that the white Farmers' Alliance met in Baton Rouge, the colored Farmers' Alliance met in Alexandria. The two organizations exchanged congratulations, and the negroes adopted resolutions expressing their willingness to be led by their white brethren. The Baton Rouge convention decided that it would be inadvisable to organize a new political party, but that it was best that the farmers should act within the Democratic party, and, as in Georgia, capture its organization and adopt the Alliance platform. As the farmers probably contributed a majority of the Democrats in half the districts, their plan seemed practicable enough.

Somehow it did not work in Louisiana as it had done in Georgia. The farmers had actual majorities in three of the district conventions, but failed to utilize them. The sitting members from the Fourth, Fifth and Sixth districts all refused to approve the Alliance proposition or to support the Sub-Treasury bill. They were threatened with defeat if they would not accept this bill, but they maintained their independence. In the Fourth district, Mr. Blanchard was waited on to express his views on the subject, and again declared himself against the bill; yet when the convention met, he was nominated from his personal popularity and following, while a very remarkable platform was adopted, which asked him to vote for a bill somewhat like the Sub-Treasury bill, if a measure similar to that could be framed which in his opinion would be constitutional.

In the Fifth district it was the same; in the Sixth even worse. The convention there was a Farmers' Alliance Convention, and had no trouble in adopting resolutions in favor of the Sub-Treasury bill; yet after doing this it renominated the Hon. S. M. Robertson, the sitting member from the district, who is opposed to the Sub-Treasury scheme. The result of its campaign, therefore, was to carry the conventions and adopt its resolutions, and then to nominate men opposed to these very resolutions. A great many of the farmers were very much dissatisfied with these barren victories, and insisted that, as they were in a majority, they should control the Democratic party. Several of the Alliances determined not to accept the action of the conventions, and farmers' conventions were called to consider the situation and decided upon the advisibility of placing independent candidates in the field. Two of these conventions have been held. In the Fifth district a majority of the farmers decided that it would be unwise to nominate an independent candidate. The district has a large negro majority, and as the Republicans have nominated a negro for Congress, it would be dangerous to divide the white vote and risk the election of the negro.

In the Fourth district, however, in which the Hon. N. W. Blanchard is the Democratic nominee, the Farmers' Convention at Natchitoches decided to bolt, and placed T. J. Genee, State Lecturer of the Alliance, in nomination as an independent candidate. This created the greatest stir in the Alliance camp. Nearly half the delegates to the Convention walked out. They were earnest in their support of the Sub-Treasury bill, but they were not yet prepared to antagonize the Democratic party. A majority remained, however, and determined to support Genee on an Alliance platform. The contest would have been an exciting one, as there is no Republican candidate in the district and Genee would have probably received a majority of the negro votes.

The pressure, however, was too great, and after a few days' deliberation Mr. Genee decided not to run. This action was regarded as very strange, as he was a strong advocate of the farmers putting up independent candidates of their own in most of the districts. The President of the Alliance, however, and most of the leading men in it opposed the bolt, and pointed out that it would bring ruin to the organization. All its members are Democrats, and if they found that it was fighting the Democracy their party feelings might cause them to desert the order. Mr. Genee, therefore, came down, and the Farmers' Alliance as a consequence finds itself without a candidate for Congress in the State, although it is in a majority in half the districts; and its members are compelled to vote for men who repudiate a measure (the sub-Treasury scheme) which the Alliance Convention in August declared must be supported at all hazards. Considering its great membership, the Alliance has done very poorly in its first political campaign.

STYLES IN STATIONERY.

The Proper Thing in Note Paper and in Visiting Cards.

Styles in stationery have not materially changed from last season, though some of the distinctions are a little more marked. New varieties of note paper, with florid decorations, eccentric dimensions, and conspicuous tintings are produced, but fail to become standard. The most elegant as well as genteel paper sold is a heavy cream white sheet folding once into a square envelope. This sheet may have a rough finish and the curiously mottled appearance of coarse wrapping paper, by the irregular arrangement of water lines, when it is known as Grecian antique. It may be smoothly finished, with no gloss and very heavy and silky in texture, when it is called "kid finished." It may have a rough cloth finish, or a peculiar rough effect, known as "parchment vellum." Quite the latest paper used is a so-called "etching paper," which has a rough surface with various irregular depressions, and rougher still, almost like Bristol board, is the so-called hand made parchment. A new variety of paper has broad water lines stamped across the paper horizontally, and diagonally applied to the envelope.

The same styles, too, are carried out in the thin lined papers for those who like a thin paper for the purpose of letter writing. In all notes of invitation or regret and formal correspondence the heavier varieties are employed. The one new tint produced this year is a very delicate violet shade, which is sometimes used by æsthetic people. Another shade known as azure, which is in reality a dull soft blue, is also somewhat popular; dull stone color and chocolate are also sometimes seen, but the conservative woman of good taste selects always a plain cream-tinted paper. At the top of the page, and in the centre instead of the corner, is her address stamped in colored letters, surmounted by her monogram or coat of arms if she has one. The monograms are much more used this season than they have been previously, and the fancy is to stamp them in embossed letters colored with metallic colors. The three initials in script are sometimes used instead of the monogram. For ordinary use the letters and accompanying monograms are of a clear scarlet or blue, printed smoothly upon the paper.

Gentlemen's visiting cards are a trifle longer and quite as narrow as those of last year, and have the address in the lower left hand corner. The lady's visiting card is large, square, and imposing, and engraved in large script, especially if the name is a short one.

Wedding invitations are in every respect the same, engraved on a sheet, note size, which folds once, to be enclosed in the envelope. This envelope contains sometimes three cards besides the invitation proper—the card to be presented at the church door, another for the reception at the house and a third which may give the future at home day of the bride. A card is sometimes used for church weddings indicating the hour and place at which the bridal party take the train, and which is practically an invitation to see them off on the wedding journey.

Eels Stopped the Mill.

HAMMONDSPORT, Oct. 9.—Mud Creek, the outlet of Lake Lamoka, on top of the high hills east of Hammondsport, furnishes water power to Jesse Munson's saw mill. Lake Lamoka is famous for its eels. A few days ago the water being turned on full head at the mill, which was in operation, the water-wheel suddenly ceased to go round. The saws all stopped, and the sawyer went to see what the trouble was. He saw a sight that staggered him. Every bucket of the wheel and wherever there was space between the paddles was jammed full to overflowing with a writhing mass of eels. The fish had come down the stream in such numbers that they choked the passage. They were packed in the wheel so compactly that they had to be chopped out with axes from the buckets. Nine hundred eels were removed from the wheel before operation at the mill could be resumed. This is the third time in the history of this mill that it has been shut down by eels in the same way.